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ABSTRACT

The inservice training module, developed as part of the Child-Centered Inservice Training Project (Syracuse, New York) is designed for use with educators providing services for students with developmental disabilities and behavior problems. The module comprises six units which incorporate theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback and is intended to be presented over approximately 10 hours. The model stresses effective behavior change in a manner which is both humane and normalized. A decision process is outlined which can be used to plan appropriate interventions to address a particular student's behavior problems. On-site follow-up to demonstrate specific strategies and feedback is also encouraged. The six units address: the educative approach (introduction); the educative approach applied to behavior problems (an overview); identifying priority target behaviors and making intervention decisions; assessing behavior and determining function; intervention and crisis management; and evaluation and outcomes. Appended are sample data collection forms and a sample case study. Contains 8 references. (DB)

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AN EDUCATIVE APPROACH TO BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS:

AN INSERVICE TRAINING MODULE FOR TEACHERS OF STUDENTS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES AND BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

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INTRODUCTION

This in-service training module is designed for use with educators providing services for students with developmental disabilities and behavior problems.

The module is comprised of six units which incorporate elements of theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback. The delivery of the material in the module will vary depending on the training needs of the participants, and could occur during a 2-day intensive workshop (approximately 5 hours per day) or in briefer sessions (perhaps five 2-hour sessions) over a longer period of time. Hands-on training to accompany the knowledge level training covered in the workshops should include two types of experiences. First, the decision process outlined in the module should be used by the workshop participants to plan appropriate interventions to address a particular student's behavior problems. Secondly, staff may need on-site follow-up which might include demonstrations of certain strategies and feedback on the implementation of behavioral interventions or instructional programs.

UNIT I. AN INTRODUCTION TO THE EDUCATIVE APPROACH

As children with developmental disabilities gain greater access to mainstream environments, the need for effective, socially acceptable ways to meet the behavioral needs of those children who display challenging behaviors has increased. The approach to behavior problems described in this manual is based on the assumption that behavioral interventions should not only be effective in decreasing problem behaviors--they must also be humane, normalized, and result in long term behavior change.

The philosophy of the approach to behavior problems described here is generally consistent with that of other current publications on non-aversive interventions (e.g., Donnellan, LaVigna, Negri-Shoultz, & Fassbender, 1988; Evans and Meyer, 1985; Lovett, 1985; McGee, Menolascino, Hobbs, & Menousek, 1985), especially in its emphasis on normalized intervention strategies and quality-of-life components. The approach is also in keeping with the positions taken by various major advocacy organizations in the United States (e.g., The Association for Retarded Citizens, The Association for Persons With Severe Handicaps, The Association of School Psychologists, and The American Association on Mental Retardation) regarding the use of aversive and intrusive behavioral techniques with persons who have disabilities.

In keeping with this philosophy, the approach to intervention for behavior problems described in this manual emphasizes the use of strategies that are:

Effective AND Educational

Throughout this manual, we intentionally use the phrase "behavioral intervention program" instead of the more common "behavioral management program" in order to stress that behavior management or control is not the purpose of our approach to challenging behaviors. The goal of the approach described in this manual is learning. Although behavior management programs using contingent rewards and/or punishments can be effective in the short run, they do not generally result in lasting improvements unless conducted in conjunction with efforts to teach the person needed skills.

A behavior program should be essentially a skill-building program developed to remediate the learning needs revealed by a behavior problem. It should teach the child other, more positive ways to meet his or her immediate needs, and also teach more general skills for coping with life's frustrations and engaging in positive social interactions. We maintain that a truly effective behavioral intervention is one that results in a

effective behavioral intervention is one that results in a decrease in the problem behavior and also in long term behavior change which persists even after the formal intervention has ended. A program will have a lasting effect only if the individual learns to use a more adaptive behavior in place of the negative one, and this adaptive behavior must usually be taught.

Humane AND Normalized

This approach is values-based, and consistent with the rights of individuals to both effective treatment and freedom from harm. The interventions used are procedures that society in general--and a child's significant others in particular--would judge to be acceptable for use in public. Only strategies that promote positive images of persons who have disabilities are employed. It is important to realize that even certain behavior modification programs using rewards can be inappropriate for use in community settings. For example, typical people do not receive tokens for "good" behavior. We should choose methods that are both humane and normalized.

Critical Features of the Educative Approach

In contrast to aversive and even some nonaversive contingency management procedures, the educative approach to behavior problems emphasizes the use of socially valid strategies in programs that do not compromise the quality-of-life of persons with disabilities and/or excess behaviors. The following are some of the other critical features of the approach which must be incorporated for the approach to work effectively:

1. The approach emphasizes quality-of-life. Successful intervention for behavior problems requires more than sound behavioral technology; it requires that the individual has opportunities to make personally significant choices, develop personal relationships, and participate in meaningful tasks and activities. Therefore, the focus of this approach is on providing persons with challenging behaviors with opportunities to live, work, and play with non-labeled people, not on segregating them from the rest of the world until their problems are eliminated. Certain kinds of environments--those in which people feel respected, secure, and competent--actually inhibit behavior problems.

   Many traditional behavior management programs tend to focus on how to react when the person displays the problem behavior. When mild ways of reacting (e.g., rewards, nonaversive punishments) fail to eliminate a problem behavior, this failure is sometimes used to justify the use of aversives: "Everything has been tried and failed." However, aside from the fact that seldom has everything

have all emphasized consequences or contingencies instead of making needed changes in the person's lifestyle and environment. Simply dispensing rewards instead of punishments may not make a lot of difference in a person's behavior if he or she has few meaningful personal relationships and does not have opportunities to participate in normalized life experiences. For the educative approach to be effective, choice-making opportunities and opportunities to develop relationships with classmates and other peers may have to be incorporated into the student's day.

2. The approach requires team decision-making and problem-solving. The approach is not a menu or even a cookbook of "techniques," but requires the team of staff members who plan and provide services for a student to apply a collaborative problem-solving process to the development of a unique, personalized intervention plan. Note that this feature has an impact on administrative policies and practices, as staff must have an opportunity to meet and work together as a team.

3. The approach is individualized. This approach emphasizes tailoring the intervention to meet the individual's needs. There is not one method that will work for every child in every situation. The intervention depends on the child's skills and personality, his or her likes and dislikes, and the purpose of the problem behavior. Implementing individualized interventions (e.g., a flexible schedule, novel activities, or unique grouping arrangements) may require programs to be more flexible than usual, but this flexibility is an essential feature of the approach.

4. The approach emphasizes active treatment and skill acquisition. The focus is on increasing positive behaviors rather than on decreasing problem behaviors. This approach will only work in settings that emphasize active participation in meaningful experiences and activities.

5. The approach emphasizes prevention. Unfortunately, the resources that can help prevent problem behaviors from reaching crisis proportions are often not available. When they are available, these resources--such as special staffing, training, and other direct and indirect services--are often tied to segregated and restrictive environments. Though prevention may require more immediate resources, it also reduces the need for far more expensive and restrictive services over the long term.

UNIT II. OVERVIEW OF AN EDUCATIVE APPROACH TO BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS.

Objectives

After the completion of this unit, participants will be able to:

1. Summarize four broad categories of behavior problems: self-injurious behavior, aggression, disruptive behavior and stereotyped behavior.

2. State the differences between an educative approach to behavior problems and eliminative approaches, and describe the disadvantages of the eliminative approach.

3. Describe the four assumptions behind the educative approach.

II. OVERVIEW OF AN EDUCATIVE APPROACH TO BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

The Nature of Challenging Behaviors

This training module is about interventions for behavior problems displayed by persons with developmental disabilities. Many different words have been used to describe these behaviors, including "aberrant," "inappropriate," "bizarre," and "maladaptive." The terms we prefer are "excess behavior," which is a more objectively descriptive term, and "challenging behaviors" or "problem behavior"--terms that highlight the idea that the behaviors are a problem, not the person.

The excess behaviors we will be addressing include: 1) aggression toward others; 2) disruptive behaviors such as tantrums, yelling or screaming, clothes ripping, and throwing objects; 3) self-injurious behaviors such as head banging, biting or hitting oneself, and vomiting; and 4) stereotyped behavior such as finger-flicking, body rocking, mouthing objects, and arm flapping.

All of these behaviors are challenging to teachers, caregivers, and programs, and we would certainly want to help someone stop doing them, but it is important to recognize certain things about such behaviors:

1. We all have "excess" behavior. For example, many of us engage in self-injurious behaviors such as excessive eating, drinking or smoking, and many of us exhibit "stereotypic" behaviors such as pencil-chewing or leg swinging. These behaviors are considered normal under certain circumstances, and we should not assume that every excess behavior needs to be changed. Furthermore, we exercise the right not to change some of our behaviors even if they are bothersome to others or socially inappropriate under some circumstances.

2. Most excess behaviors are not purposeless, not maladaptive, and do not represent evidence that the person is disturbed as much as they reveal learning needs. An excess behavior is often the most effective way an individual has to get his or her needs met. We assume that if the person had a more conventional way to do or say something, he or she would use it.

3. Many challenging behaviors are a form of non-verbal communication or reveal what is called "communicative intent". It seems that people sometimes develop disturbing or unconventional ways to communicate things

like "No," "Yes," "I want," "I don't want," or "Pay attention to me." For example, throwing an object could be a way to say "I don't like this"; hitting yourself could be a way to say "Spend some time with me," and crying could be a way to say "I'm frustrated."

In trying to understand how behavior problems develop, it may help to realize that we all sometimes have difficulty communicating in positive ways. For example, we might pout or mope when we don't get enough attention, or give someone the "silent treatment" or even have a "tantrum" when we don't get our way. We don't always discuss our complaints or problems in a rational way! A child with a developmental disability who uses only a few words or signs (or doesn't talk or sign at all) can have a great deal of difficulty expressing wants and needs, let alone feelings. Such a child has the same needs we all do to have some control over his or her life and environment, yet has fewer ways of doing so. He or she may have learned that rather extreme behaviors work better than his or her attempts at conventional forms of communication. This may be especially true if we have not accepted the person's right to express preferences and make choices, and therefore have not made teaching him or her to do so a priority.

4. Because different behaviors have different purposes, and because an individual can use a given behavior for several different purposes, <u>not all behavior will respond to the same intervention techniques</u>. An analysis of the <u>function</u> or <u>purpose</u> of the problem behavior is essential to the development of effective interventions for problem behaviors.

The following profiles of some students we have known illustrate these points:

<u>JIM</u>

Jim loves people but doesn't talk and knows perhaps three signs (eat, drink, bathroom). The most effective way he's found to say "Pay attention to me" is grabbing and pinching. From his perspective, it might seem that sitting nicely and smiling <u>sometimes</u> works as a way to get attention, but pinching <u>always</u> works. If attention is what he wants most, it "makes sense" to him to use pinching to get it.

BOB

Bob, a 5-year old boy who weighed 130 pounds, would lie down on the floor at school. Upon closer examination, his teacher realized that he did this when asked to do tasks such as a stacking cone (which he had done daily for the past year) while sitting in a chair that fit an average-sized kindergarten child. Is it really maladaptive for him to want to avoid that situation? If you don't know how to say, "May I please have a more interesting task and a larger chair," or if such a request would not be honored, lying on the floor may be the most "adaptive" communication strategy you have.

SUSAN

Susan, a teenage girl labeled autistic, would dig at her skin until it bled. It seemed that she did this when her parents or teachers made certain choices for her or tried to help her too much, such as when she was told what or when to eat, or when to go to the bathroom. This behavior was Susan's way of telling others "Let me do it myself."

These behaviors are obviously difficult for teachers and caregivers to cope with, and our goal is to teach these young people other ways of expressing themselves. However, it is important to realize that though the forms that Bob, Jim and Susan used to communicate were not desirable, there is probably nothing inappropriate about what they were communicating. Instead of just trying to eliminate problem behaviors or gain control over them, we should teach people more positive ways to express themselves, make choices, and control their environments.

When behavior problems are viewed in this way, as indicators of learning needs, educators are empowered to use their own teaching and decision-making skills to address the needs of students who present behavioral challenges, rather than feeling that behavior programs are the province of a few experts!

The Eliminative Approach to Behavior Problems

One common approach to behavior problems is to try to eliminate undesirable behaviors before targeting and teaching new responses. The "eliminative approach" is based on the assumption that students with challenging behaviors must stop displaying their undesirable behaviors so that they will be "ready to learn." Therefore, children with serious behavior problems are

sometimes sent to special schools or "behavior management classes" to "work on behavior." Many times, these students' IEP's are dominated by deceleration goals such as "John will decrease incidents of pinching others from the present rate of five to ten attempts daily to fewer than two attempts daily."

There are several problems with the eliminative approach. Though problem behaviors can sometimes be decreased quickly and quite effectively under this approach, its effectiveness is also quite limited because:

1. the behaviors often reappear once the program has ended;

2. the effects of the program do not generalize to other environments;

3. the program is only effective when the trainer is present.

Four Assumptions of the Educative Approach

In contrast to the eliminative approach, the educative approach is based on these four assumptions:

1. The IEP is an educational plan, not plan for decreasing excess behavior. The IEP should be primarily a plan for teaching new skills and promoting the individual's participation in meaningful social and educational experiences. Goals to teach needed skills should not be replaced by goals that focus only upon decreases in behavior.

2. Not all excess behaviors are equal priority targets for intervention. Many persons have several excess behaviors; some are higher intervention priorities than others, and some may not need to be changed at all. Valid decision-making criteria should be applied to determine which behaviors to address. Furthermore, the individual's behavior represents a system: Changing a behavior will result in many other changes in the individual's repertoire, so that costs and benefits to the individual's total behavioral repertoire must always be considered. Direct programming to modify a behavior should be employed only for behavior that is serious enough that we are committed to truly replacing it with a more functional and positive behavior.

3. To decrease a behavior problem, increase a skill. When a behavior problem is a priority, the most effective way to "reduce" it is to replace it with a positive alternative behavior that achieves the same function for the individual.

4. Services need not compromise quality of life and interventions for persons with handicaps must be normalized. Interventions and management programs that are bizarre, de-dignifying, jeopardize the safety or well-being of the individual, are painful or stressful, are disruptive to the person's ability to enjoy a reasonable lifestyle and/or normal interactions with others, and/or would not be acceptable for use with nonhandicapped individuals in community environments should be replaced by normalized, habilitative, and nonaversive procedures. Services should support the individual in the community and facilitate his or her acceptance and success in typical environments--not remove, isolate, and stigmatize.

Unit III: IDENTIFYING PRIORITY TARGET BEHAVIORS AND MAKING INTERVENTION DECISIONS

Objectives

After the completion of this unit, participants will be able to:

1. Identify three levels of seriousness of behavior problems and the decision criteria that apply to each level.

2. Given examples of behavior problems, decide which level of seriousness is involved and describe the appropriate planning process which should be followed.

3. Describe how a "cost-benefit" analysis might be used to supplement decisions made for Level II behaviors.

4. Describe how a "cost-benefit" analysis might be used to supplement decisions made for Level III behaviors and how it would differ from Level II behaviors.

UNIT III: IDENTIFYING PRIORITY TARGET BEHAVIORS AND MAKING INTERVENTION DECISIONS

Steps in Planning to Remediate Behavior Problems

1. Determine which behaviors are a priority.

2. List the conditions and circumstances in which the behavior is most likely to occur and does not occur.

3. Determine the function(s) of the behavior.

4. List the conditions and circumstances in which a new, adaptive behavior is needed when the trainer is not present.

5. Develop an intervention plan including ecological, curricular, and consequential strategies. Also develop a crisis management plan if necessary.

Three Levels of Seriousness of Excess Behavior

Students may have many behavioral needs: it is not possible or even desirable to address all of their behavior problems at once. Furthermore, it would be indefensible to use precious learning time to focus upon decreasing behavior that is simply not critical in comparison to the need to learn new skills. Determining which behaviors are a priority for intervention is the first step in planning to remediate behavior problems.

Level I: Urgent behaviors requiring immediate attention

These behaviors are health or life-threatening (e.g., head-banging, biting hands, vomiting, cutting oneself with sharp objects). They are so serious that they always demand direct intervention efforts, and should be directly reflected on the IEP through a deceleration goal. Alternative skills should also be identified and taught.

Level II: Serious behaviors requiring formal consideration

These are behaviors which represent one of four "risk" categories:

(1) The behavior interferes with learning (e.g., screaming and crying during instructional time).

(2) The behavior is likely to become more serious in the

near future (e.g., face slapping, pushing fingers at eyes, picking at skin).

(3) The behavior is dangerous to others (e.g., hitting or scratching others).

(4) The behavior is of great concern to caregivers (e.g., tantrumming in public places).

The intervention decision rule for Level II behaviors is: Modify the behavior if the potential benefits to the individual outweigh the costs. For example, if efforts to prevent an individual from lightly slapping his or her face result in head-banging, it might be better not to intervene with the light face slapping at this time.

Level II behaviors are serious enough to be reflected indirectly on the IEP as alternative skill acquisition goals. It may be necessary to add separate behavior deceleration goals, but these goals should be in addition to--not as a substitute for--a comprehensive skill development program.

Level III: Excess behaviors reflecting "normal deviance"

Less serious behaviors may justify intervention if one of these five conditions exists:

(1) The behavior is not improving or is getting worse (e.g., crying during non-instructional time);

(2) The behavior has been a problem for a long time (e.g., thumb sucking);

(3) The behavior damages materials (e.g., throwing materials on the floor);

(4) The behavior interferes with community acceptance (e.g., echolalia in public places);

(5) Improvement in the behavior would generate another behavioral improvement (e.g., teasing peers, so that a change would lead to more positive interactions with peers).

At Level III, the intervention decision rule is: Intervene if all other needs are being met, the benefits to the student outweigh the costs, and adequate staff time and resources are available. Note that this is the only level at which it is legitimate to consider staff time and program resources in making an intervention decision.

Level III behaviors should generally not be directly reflected on the IEP, but alternative skill acquisition goals should be included if they are consistent with other goals already on the IEP.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

DEMONSTRATION: DETERMINING INTERVENTION PRIORITIES

Have someone describe a student with disabilities who exhibits several problem behaviors. List the behaviors and identify them as Level I, II, or III behaviors. Show how a cost-benefit analysis would be done for at least one Level II and one Level III behavior.

PRACTICE: DETERMINING INTERVENTION PRIORITIES

Break into small groups of 3-4. Have someone in each group describe a student with disabilities who exhibits several problem behaviors. List the student's problem behaviors and decide which are Level I, II, or III behaviors.

Do a cost-benefit analysis for at least one Level II and one Level III behavior.

Have the small groups report back to the larger group.

APPLICATION: DETERMINING INTERVENTION PRIORITIES

If this workshop is being presented during several shorter sessions, participants should have an opportunity to develop and then receive feedback on an intervention plan designed to address the behavioral needs of one of their students. The first step involved in developing the intervention plan would be to determine intervention priorities for this particular student by deciding which behaviors are Level I, II, or III behaviors, and then doing cost-benefit analyses for the Level II and III behaviors.

UNIT IV: ASSESSING BEHAVIOR AND DETERMINING FUNCTION

Objectives

After completing this unit, participants will be able to:

1. Identify several data collection strategies to use in assessing behavior.

2. Identify five possible functions of behavior (including three different types of social/communicative messages) and give examples of each.

3. Describe a process for identifying when a behavior problem is most/least likely to occur.

4. Describe a process for how information regarding the function of a behavior is used to design an intervention.

UNIT IV. ASSESSING BEHAVIOR AND DETERMINING ITS FUNCTION.

A-B-C Analysis

After determining intervention priorities, the next steps in planning an intervention are to assess the behavior and determine its function (or functions--an excess behavior often serves more than one purpose; conversely, a single purpose can be achieved using several different behaviors).

Conducting a functional analysis or A-B-C Analysis requires gathering the following kinds of information:

1. What are the Antecedents which reliably predict that the behavior will occur? In other words, where and when does it occur? What is happening? Who is present? Conversely, where, when, and with whom does the behavior not occur?

2. What is the Behavior like? How often does it occur? How long does it last? How intense is it?

3. What are the Consequences that typically follow the behavior? Consider not only the consequences purposefully applied by staff, but anything that occurs following the behavior. (Do people leave the room? Does a lot of excitement occur? Does the person get to leave the task or situation? Does the person get lots of attention? Are privileges taken away?)

Information about the antecedents that predict the behavior and the consequences that are maintaining the behavior are important in designing educative interventions. However, instead of just manipulating the consequences that follow the problem behavior (such as by removing reinforcing consequences or applying punishment), we want to try to understand the function or purpose the behavior serves for the individual.

Determining the Function of Excess Behavior

The next step in assessing behavior is to develop some hypotheses about the function a particular problem behavior might be serving for the person. Then, instead of just decreasing the problem through contingency management, we can teach him or her alternative ways to achieve that purpose.

It is important to note that when we speak about the function of a problem behavior, we are not referring to the student's original motivation for the behavior, but to the motivation at this point in time. In other words, we are more concerned with why the person continues to use the behavior than with why he or she started using the behavior. For example, a student may begin scratching himself because of dry skin or some other physical discomfort. However, if staff spend more time with the student when he scratches himself or physically intervene when he does so, the scratching can come to serve an entirely different purpose: gaining attention. Thus, the current function or purpose of a behavior is not always the same thing as the cause of the behavior.

Evans and Meyer (1985) describe 3 possible functions of excess behavior:

1. Behavior can have social-communicative functions. The behavior might be thought of as a method of non-verbal communication, and might involve these three very different types of messages:

   (a) The need for attention. Gaining attention is a very important social-communicative function, and we should be careful not to just discount attention-getting behavior. If you are spending time with someone else and the student's needs for attention are not being met, and he or she doesn't have many skills for communicating that need, throwing something on the floor may "work" as an attention-getting strategy.

   (b) The desire to escape or avoid a person, task, or situation. If the task is too difficult, the person may be trying to communicate "this is too hard." If it's too boring, that may be the meaning of his or her message. Some individuals seem to want to avoid all demands and interactions, and have developed many behaviors which help them to do so.

   (c) Getting something you want is another function of social-communication skills. If a person doesn't have a conventional way to say "I want," he or she may use another behavior, such as a tantrum, which has worked in the past.

2. Excess behavior can serve a self-regulatory function. The person may be using the behavior to adjust arousal level or to selectively attend to a task. Some self-stimulatory or stereotypic behaviors might

actually function to help the learner focus on a task rather than be a distraction, as is often assumed to be the case. The purpose of these behaviors is not social. They vary depending on the amount or degree of environmental stimulation and/or the person's physiological state.

3. Some excess behaviors serve the function of self-entertainment or play. These behaviors give the person something to do when left alone or when waiting. Such behaviors are self-reinforcing and, like self-regulatory behaviors, they are not under the control of social contingencies.

Developing and Testing Hypotheses About the Functions of Excess Behavior

The following instruments and strategies can be used to gather information about the behavior's antecedents and consequences and also to generate and test hypotheses regarding the function of behavior if it is not immediately apparent. Sample data collection forms are provided in Appendix A.

1. The Motivation Assessment Scale (MAS) developed by Durand (1988) can assist in doing a functional analysis. The scale, which can be completed by parents, teachers, and/or other persons who know the student well, contains 16 questions to help determine the situations in which a student is likely to exhibit a specific behavior, and a key which tells how to determine whether the primary function or motivation of a behavior is avoidance, getting something tangible, attention or sensory input.

2. A Daily Log kept by staff is easy to use and yet provides information that can be helpful in identifying the function of behavior. This strategy might yield information that would give staff some ideas about the antecedents of the behavior and the consequences that are maintaining it. Those ideas could then be tested by observing the behavior under different conditions. The Daily Log should be kept on a regular basis (3 times per week), regardless of whether problem behaviors are observed.

3. Incident Records can provide additional information about serious incidents of problem behavior, and can be used in conjunction with a Daily Log. Staff would

first need to define in observable, measurable terms the behavior(s) that constitutes a serious incident.

An incident record would then be completed by the staff person most directly involved when an incident occurs, and would include information about what was happening just prior to the incident, what happened through the incident, and what happened immediately after the incident. The staff person would also write down some hypotheses about why the person behaved as he or she did and ideas about how the behavior should have been prevented or handled.

4. A Scatter Plot technique developed by Touchette (1985) is useful for objectively measuring specific behaviors at different times of day and provides much more information than a traditional frequency count. To create a scatter plot, frequency data on the behavior are recorded according to the time interval during which they occured. You can then generate hypotheses about why the behavior seems more or less likely to occur at certain times of day.

   For example, one teacher noticed that a 10-year old girl's screaming and tantrumming tended to occur more frequently during the afternoon than during the morning. The teacher realized that in the morning, the girl received mainly one- to-one instruction, while her afternoon activities included more large group instruction and demands for group participation. To test her hypothesis that the purpose of the tantrums was to avoid participating in group activities, the teacher adjusted the girls' daily schedule so that she had more one-to-one activities in the afternoon. The tantrums decreased.

5. In addition, the following strategy can be employed by a team of professionals serving a student:

   a. At a team meeting, staff develop a list of alternative explanations for the behavior.

   b. Generate a corresponding function test for each possible explanation, asking "Will the excess behavior decrease if _____?"

   c. Conduct these tests in natural contexts, and collect data on the results.

6. Whatever methods you use, it will be helpful to do periodic reliability checks on your information. For example, your classroom assistant might do the daily log for a student on a regular basis. Every two weeks or so, you should also do a log for that student and compare your observations with those of your assistant in a discussion at the end of the day. That way you'll be able to insure that the logs are accurate and consistent in eliciting the kinds of information you need to plan and evaluate your program.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

DEMONSTRATION: ANALYZING THE FUNCTION(S) OF EXCESS BEHAVIOR

Have a trainee describe a student and one of his or her excess behaviors. Demonstrate the A-B-C analysis process by asking the trainee relevant questions (e.g., Are there particular places where the problem is more likely to occur? Are their places where the problem seldom or never occurs?). Describe the data collection strategies that could be used to complete the functional analysis.

UNIT V . INTERVENTION AND CRISIS MANAGEMENT

After completing this unit, participants will be able to:

1. Describe the three types of strategies for intervention (ecological, curricular, and consequence), and explain the purpose of each.

2. Explain how information about the function of an excess behavior is used in designing an intervention.

3. Describe the difference between an intervention and a crisis management procedure.

UNIT V. INTERVENTION AND CRISIS MANAGEMENT

There are three broad types of strategies for intervention: ecological, curricular, and consequential. The three strategies are almost always needed when intervening for serious behavior problems. If the behavior is harmful to the person or to others (e.g., head-banging or serious aggression), then a crisis management plan may also need to be developed.

Three Types of Strategies for Intervention

Ecological Strategies or Prevention

These strategies involve rearranging the environment so that the problem behavior is less likely to occur. Ecological strategies are like consequential strategies in that they usually just manage or control the behavior rather than actually changing it; however, they do so by preventing the occurrence of the behavior. A further advantage is that the need to attend to "consistency" is circumvented. If we change something in the environment--the daily schedule, the tasks, the seating, and so on--it remains changed until we purposefully change it back. With consequential strategies, there is always the chance that behavior will be inadvertently reinforced, and acquired behavior that is reinforced intermittently is very difficult to eliminate. Another reason for using ecological strategies to prevent problems from occuring is that the more opportunities a person has to "practice" using an incorrect response, the harder it is to teach him or her the correct response.

Sometimes, ecological interventions are permanent because the environment was in fact non-habilitative or inappropriate in some other way, such as when students are being required to do meaningless, non-functional, age-inappropriate, or boring tasks. In other cases, the behavior problem is a direct result of the person's not having opportunities to make personally meaningful choices. (It has been said that the choices of persons with disabilities are too often limited to compliance or noncompliance!) In these cases, the environment should be changed--and changed permanently. Sometimes, too, it may be appropriate to allow for personal preference and not to require people to tolerate environments they don't like, much the way we all choose to avoid situations we find unpleasant, stressful, or simply not to our liking. (Ecological changes such as these are actually just good programming, rather than intervention for a specific behavior problem. If these sorts of changes are needed, they should be viewed as priorities.)

Most often, however, ecological strategies are a temporary way to manage the behavior while new skills are being taught. The environment can then be slowly returned to "normal" when the individual has mastered the skills needed to handle these situations.

There are two general kinds of ecological strategies:

a. Those that involve <u>rearranging or modifying the environment</u>, for example:

(1) furniture--The mother of a young man with autism noticed that he had developed a fear of trash cans and would scream whenever he saw one. She started keeping them under tables or put lids on them.

(2) materials--If a student gets Elmer's glue all over everyone during art, use a glue stick. Use markers if the student breaks crayons.

(3) staff--Avoid "personality conflicts". If a student persistently has tantrums when a particular staff person is assigned to work with him or her, it might be best to avoid that situation until the staff person learns the skills to develop a positive relationship with the student.

(4) schedule--A student may do better at math seatwork if it's done <u>after</u> PE instead of before.

(5) seating--Students who distract or annoy each other can be separated.

(6) task--We sometimes ask students to do things that are boring, repetitive, meaningless, or too difficult. Tasks may need to be harder, easier, more varied or less boring depending on the individual. Making tasks more functional (instead of practicing acquired skills or working on "prerequisite skills,") or doing more functional skill routines such as fixing a snack or performing self care routines can be an effective ecological strategy.

(7) The instructional format may need to be modified, such as by using:

a prompting procedure instead of a correcting procedure;
less intrusive or fewer prompts;

cooperative instead of competitive or individualized goal structures.

b. Various response interruption procedures can be used to prevent a behavior from occuring while new skills are being acquired.

These include:

(1) prostheses or protective clothing (e.g., arm or hand splints, velcro straps, mittens, soft helmet. These would only be appropriate in the case of very serious behaviors that could not be prevented otherwise.);

(2) physical interruption (e.g., blocking a child's movement to hit himself or bite his hands);

(3) distractions using a powerful competing response (e.g., wiping mouth with handkerchief, picking something up);

(4) verbal or gestural cues to redirect the person to the task (e.g., "Let's do two more").

Curricular Interventions or Teaching

In most cases, the presence of a behavior problem is a clear sign that the individual has a primary skill deficit. The person may either not have another behavior to use, or the other behavior may not seem to be as effective as the excess behavior in accomplishing the individual's purpose. A successful intervention would mean teaching a new skill as well as teaching the person that the new skill is worth using because it "works" better than the excess behavior.

The new skill must accomplish the same function as the old skill or the person will not be motivated to use it. If the function of the excess behavior is social/communicative, then the person must be taught a new communicative form that will serve the same function. If the behavior's function is self-regulating or for play, he or she needs to learn a new skill. The person also needs to learn how and when to use these new behaviors.

A type of situation where many educators have trouble accepting this concept is one where they are aware of the purpose of the problem behavior, but they do not agree that the student should be able to exercise this option. Staff often feel that they should not respond to the behavior, because that would be "giving in". What often happens is that staff resist responding to the behavior at low levels, the student continues to escalate the behavior until it is intolerable, and then someone does

finally "give in."

For example, a 12-year old girl named Kathy would say "I want out, I want out" to group activities such as group speech lessons. Staff resisted giving in to this, saying that Kathy needed to learn to tolerate group activities, and to learn that she couldn't always have her way. When she saw that she wasn't going to get out of the group activity by saying, "I want out," Kathy would then begin biting her hands and crying. A staff person would try to take Kathy's hands out of her mouth, and she would then scratch the staff person and eventually work herself into a full scale tantrum. At this point, she would be taken to time-out. The problem with this strategy was that instead of being reinforced for using speech to express herself--which was one of her IEP goals!--Kathy was reinforced for using aggression and tantrums to indicate her desire to escape from the situation.

Staff knew exactly what Kathy was trying to communicate, but they did not agree that she should be able to get out of the activity. Staff had to be convinced that the problem with Kathy's behavior was not the <u>form</u> of the behavior but its <u>rate</u>. Saying "I want out" is a fairly acceptable way to communicate the desire to avoid a situation. However, she used this behavior excessively. Therefore, we needed to shape the use of the behavior into a more acceptable rate, not eliminate it. The intervention plan developed to address this problem first required that any group activities involving Kathy be appropriate and meaningful to her. Second, Kathy was to be allowed to sit at her desk for five minutes when she said "May I have a break?" (She was prompted to say this instead of "I want out."). At first, taking a break was contingent only on making the verbal request and completing one more step of the activity. Once Kathy had learned asking for a break would get her what she wanted, break-taking was made contingent on gradually increasing amounts of participation in the group activity.

The intervention plan would be different in a case where the student had a wide repertoire of excess behaviors which all serve the purpose of avoiding or escaping from interaction and participation with others. If the student seems to want to avoid all interaction and already has a wide variety of ways to accomplish this purpose, the most important thing to teach this person would be that interaction and participation can be rewarding (see McGee et al., 1987 for further discussion of how to approach this challenge).

<u>Adaptive alternatives</u>. Teaching the person a specific behavior to accomplish the same function as the problem behavior is one level of curricular intervention. For example, a student might be taught:

(1) signing "help" instead of having a tantrum when faced

with a difficult task;

(2) "giving 5" or shaking hands instead of grabbing or hitting to initiate social interaction;

(3) playing Simon instead of finger-flicking for entertainment;

(4) asking for help instead of throwing materials when frustrated by a difficult task.

Instruction in the adaptive alternative can take place in formal teaching situations and also under "natural" circumstances when the excess behavior is about to occur. It is important to attend not only to acquisition, but also to fluency, generalization, and maintenance of the skill. The person needs to know how and when to use the skill when the teacher is not present.

Coping strategies and social skill deficits. In designing educational interventions, we need to do more than just teach the person one isolated skill to serve as an alternative to a problem behavior. Most often, the person has some underlying skill deficits--often social-communication skill deficits--that need to be addressed if future problems are to be prevented. A second level of curricular intervention therefore involves long-term prevention of the problem behavior by addressing these underlying skill deficits. These skills are not specific to a given behavior, but they are the kinds of skills necessary to achieve truly permanent, long-term improvements in behavior.

For example, if a student throws materials when he or she is faced with a difficult task, we would first want to teach that student a specific adaptive alternative, such as communicating verbally or by using a sign or gesture that he needs help. However, the underlying problem is that this student has a very low tolerance for frustration, so we would also need to address the long term curricular goal of increasing frustration tolerance. We might do this by playing games with the student that he or she could not always win, doing more teasing and joking with him or her, and putting the student into other non-threatening but mildly frustrating situations so that necessary coping skills gradually develop.

Consequences or reacting. Though this is the most immediate level of intervention, we discuss it last because consequences do little in and of themselves to change behavior; it's teaching that really changes behavior. However, staff should have a plan for reacting to an excess behavior in a way that re-directs the behavior without reinforcing it. Like the other types of strategies comprising an intervention plan, consequences are

individually determined, and should be normalized and nonaversive. If the behavior is very serious (e.g., head-banging or drawing a knife), then an emergency or crisis management procedure may also be needed.

Here are some possible immediate consequences that can be compatible with the educative approach if used in conjunction with ecological and curricular strategies.

(1) Rewards are certainly compatible with the educative approach as long as they are natural and normalized. Instead of dispensing rewards according to a pre-determined reinforcement schedule, we would suggest natural rewards such as free time when work is finished, a pat on the back for displaying approved social behavior, or verbal praise for participating in an activity. No matter what other strategies are included in an intervention plan, you should be sure that the student receives more rewards than corrections or negative consequences. If he or she doesn't, this should tell you that your ecological and curricular strategies are not on target.

(2) Simple restitution is one possible negative consequence. This is not the same thing as overcorrection, since it is just correction. For example, the person might be required to pick up the materials that were thrown on the floor (not pick up all of the trash in the school), or to return an object that was taken from another person. It is crucial to avoid power struggles: If you can predict that the student will not comply, forcing the issue will often be counter-productive. You should have a clear idea of those things that you consider it important to enforce (e.g., "put the book back, it's not yours") as opposed to insisting on something that it may be impossible to make the person do (e.g., "Say you're sorry').

(3) Verbal reprimand. A firm but calm verbal reprimand is another type of immediate negative consequence which can be appropriate in certain situations. This is generally most useful if the person knows the rule and is "testing" to see what he or she can get away with. If the person doesn't know the rule, but understands verbal information, re-stating the rule at that time can be a useful consequence. If the person does not understand verbal information, a verbal reprimand is not a useful consequence, and may even be rewarding for attention-motivated behavior.

(4) Interrupt the response and re-direct. You can gently interrupt the behavior in a number of ways such as by

blocking the person's movement, moving out of the way, or controlling the materials. When these techniques are used it is crucial that your affect be neutral and that you not make any verbal comments, give eye contact, show disapproval or concern by your facial expression and so on. This does not mean you ignore the person until the behavior stops, which would be unconscionable if the behavior were disruptive or harmful, and in any case is not an educational technique. Your goal is to prevent the behavior from occurring or at least to interrupt it as soon as it does occur, and then to immediately re-direct the student to the activity and provide reward for the slightest move toward participation. You can sometimes redirect the student by putting his or her hand back in contact with the instructional material, gesturing, or manipulating the materials yourself.

Note that such physical interventions to interrupt a behavior are not intended as a contingent consequence for the behavior, but as a way to stop the behavior long enough to redirect the person to do something else.

Crisis Management

It is important for all professional staff involved with a student who exhibits serious problem behaviors to be aware of an established plan to deal with emergency situations. However, it is important that the decision to use a procedure such as physical restraint or taking the person to an area where he or she can calm down be individualized. It is also important to understand that crisis management procedures such as these are not interventions. Crisis management should only be used as part of an overall plan to intervene with the behavior through proactive and educational strategies. If the intervention plan is working, then there should be a decline in the number of times the crisis management procedure is used. If there is not a decline, then the intervention plan is not working: You may not have detected the true function of the problem behavior, the environment may not be inhibiting the behavior, or the person may not be learning to use new skills effectively.

Criteria for judging a crisis management plan should include:

(1) Is it non-aversive? Is it truly a gentle, non-intrusive effort to prevent the student from hurting himself, herself or others?

(2) Is it socially acceptable and normalized? Does it

utilize procedures that would be acceptable for use with nonhandicapped people?

(3) Is it as non-intrusive as possible? If gently blocking a student's arms is enough to keep him from hitting himself, then it is not necessary to put him into a "baskethold". If sitting away from other students in a corner of the classroom for two minutes enables a student to calm down from a tantrum, he or she need not be dragged to a secluded timeout area and forced to stay there for half an hour.

(4) Have appropriate consent and review procedures been followed? Use of techniques such as positive reinforcement, social disapproval, within-view time out, and graduated guidance, require only that parent or guardian consent be obtained through the use of a standard consent form at school entry. However, techniques such as response cost, positive practice, out-of-view time-out and restitution, require specific approval of a parent or guardian and of the agency's human rights committee. Though use of a time-out room, required relaxation, or overcorrection are allowed in some school districts and agencies, they are not in keeping with the educative approach, and we do not recommend them. Techniques such as contingent physical restraint and application of physically intrusive and/or painful stimuli) are so intrusive, painful, and/or stressful that they are inappropriate for use in educational settings.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

PRACTICE: THREE TYPES OF STRATEGIES FOR INTERVENTION

Break up into small groups. For each behavior problem listed below, brainstorm possible immediate consequences, ecological strategies, curricular strategies to teach adaptive alternatives, and long-term curricular strategies.

Behaviors:

1. Tantrums when hears loud noises such as bells at school.
2. Tantrums when asked to work on difficult task for over 5 minutes.
3. Physical aggression when teased by peers.
4. Throwing objects when bored.
5. Stealing food in group home.

DEMONSTRATION: CASE STUDIES

Presenter should describe some case studies and examples of how the three types of strategies would fit together to create a comprehensive intervention plan. A sample case study is provided in Appendix B.

PRACTICE: BRAINSTORMING ECOLOGICAL, CURRICULAR AND CONSEQUENCE COMPONENTS OF AN INTERVENTION PLAN

Break up into the same small groups used earlier for the activity on determining intervention priorities.

Write an intervention plan to address a Level I or Level II behavior exhibited by the student your group focused on for that activity.

Be sure to describe ecological modifications, curricular interventions, and consequential strategies.

APPLICATION: WRITING AN INTERVENTION PLAN

Prepare an intervention plan (including the three types of strategies) to address at least one Level I or Level II behavior displayed by the student you are using as your case study.

UNIT VI: EVALUATION AND OUTCOMES

After completing the unit, participants will be able to:

1. List outcome criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of an intervention for problem behaviors that show behavior change rather than behavior control.

UNIT VI: EVALUATION AND OUTCOMES

The desired outcome of an educative approach to behavior problems is to change behavior and not simply to control or suppress it temporarily. A truly successful intervention does not remain in place indefinitely; it ends, so that the environment can return to "normal." Furthermore, in evaluating the effectiveness of an intervention for behavior problems, it is not enough to reduce the problem behavior in the treatment setting when the trainer is present. True effectiveness is measured by the following four criteria:

A. There is a reduction in the problem behavior(s);

B. The student has acquired new alternative skills that he or she now uses in place of the problem behavior;

C. The individual has acquired new strategies to prevent the occurence of future behavior problems in similar "risk" situations;

D. The person has socially adapted to integrated school and community environments and engages in positive social interactions with others.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Data Collection Forms

SCATTER PLOT DATA SHEET

(Tally each time behavior occurs within interval)

Student: _____ Dates: _____

School: _____

Behavior: _____

_____

	Monday Date:	Tuesday Date:	Wednesday Date:	Thursday Date:	Friday Date:
8:30					
8:45					
9:00					
9:15					
9:30					
9:45					
10:00					
10:15					
10:30					
10:45					
11:00					
11:15					
11:30					
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12:00					
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12:30					
12:45					
1:00					
1:15					
1:30					
1:45					
2:00					
2:15					
2:30					
2:45					
3:00					
3:15					
3:30					

DAILY LOG

Student Name_____ Day of Week/Date_____

Log Entry By_____

1. Overall, what kind of day did the student have? (circle one number only)

1	2	3	4	5
Very Good Day	Okay	Not Sure	Not Okay	Very Bad Day

2. How well did the student do on tasks while in school today? (circle one number only)

1	2	3	4	5
Very Good Day	Okay	Not Sure	Not Okay	Very Bad Day

3. How well did the student do on tasks in the community today? (circle one number only)

1	2	3	4	5
Very Good Day	Okay	Not Sure	Not Okay	Very Bad Day

- Comment briefly on the day's events and the student's behavior:

- Note any incidents that occurred which seem important to you.

- Activities the student enjoyed/did not enjoy:

- Tasks on which he worked well:

INCIDENT RECORD

COMPLETED BY _____

STUDENT _____ ACTIVITY TAKING PLACE _____

WHERE _____ DATE/DAY OF WEEK _____ TIME _____

STAFF PRESENT WHEN INCIDENT OCCURRED _____

STUDENTS PRESENT WHEN INCIDENT OCCURRED _____

1. Describe what happened just before behavior occurred:

2. Describe what the student did and what happened through the incident:

3. Describe what happened to the student immediately after the incident: (include any "consequences")

4. Why do you think the incident occurred?

5. How do you think the behavior could have been prevented or handled differently?

APPENDIX B

Sample Case Study

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

CHILD-CENTERED INSERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

TARGET STUDENT PROFILE

DATE:	OCTOBER, 1986
STUDENT:	LARRY (PSEUDONYM)
AGE:	8
HANDICAPPING CONDITION:	AUTISM
SCHOOL:	NEIGHBORHOOD ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

REFERRAL DIFFICULTIES:

* HITTING, PINCHING STAFF AND PEERS
* SCREAMING, CRYING, REFUSING TO MOVE
* THROWING AND TEARING MATERIALS
* GAZING AT OBJECTS, HANDS, LIGHTS

STUDENT: LARRY

INTERVENTION NEEDS	INTERVENTION PLAN: ECOLOGICAL	INTERVENTION PLAN: CURRICULAR	CONSEQUENCES
1. LIES ON FLOOR AND SCREAMS. TENDS TO OCCUR DURING TRANSITIONS, ESPECIALLY WHEN REQUIRED TO USE SCHOOL STAIRS. PURPOSE SEEMS TO BE AVOIDANCE.	• ADJUSTMENTS TO SCHEDULE SO FEWER TIMES ON STAIRS • MORE FUNCTIONAL SKILL ROUTINES • PROVIDE PICTURE SCHEDULE • AVOID DOWN TIME PRECEEDING TRANSITIONS • OPPORTUNITIES TO BE IN HALL, ON STAIRS DURING LOW DEMAND TIMES.	• TEACH TO USE PICTURE SCHEDULE TO FOLLOW ROUTINES, MANAGE TIME.	DO NOT USE TIME OUT OR DRAG BY ARMS. INSTEAD, IGNORE VERBALLY. USE PHYSICAL AND GESTURAL PROMPTS TO GET HIM MOVING. ENCOURAGE ANY EFFORT ON HIS PART. ONE PERSON FOLLOW THROUGH. PETER WILL CARRY HIM DOWN STAIRS FOR FIRE DRILLS OR IN EMERGENCIES.

STUDENT: LARRY

INTERVENTION NEEDS	INTERVENTION PLAN: LONG TERM		CRISIS MANAGEMENT
	ECOLOGICAL	CURRICULAR	
2) INDICATE REFUSALS: A. THROWS, TEARS, OR PUSHES MATERIALS TO INDICATE REFUSALS.	• STRUCTURED TASKS THAT MUST BE COMPLETED BEFORE CHOICE TIME.	OBJ. OF INDICATING CHOICE OF 2/3 ACTIVITIES USING SIGNS AND/OR PICTURES.	INTERRUPT BY REMOVING EXTRA MATERIALS, CONTROLLING MATERIALS, POSITIONING YOURSELF AND OTHERS SO HE CAN'T HIT YOU. IGNORE VERBALLY (I.E., DO NOT TALK ABOUT THE BEHAVIOR), REMAIN CALM. REDIRECT USING GESTURES AND PHYSICAL PROMPTS: GIVE CONCRETE GOALS (E.G., "LET'S DO 2 MORE"). GIVE STRONG REWARD FOR ANY ATTEMPT TO PARTICIPATE. HAVE HIM PICK UP MATERIALS ONLY AT <u>END</u> OF ACTIVITY.
	• AVOID MASSED TRIALS OF ACQUIRED SKILLS. TEACH MORE FUNCTIONAL SKILL ROUTINES.	OBJ. OF USING PICTURE DIRECTIONS TO PREPARE 3 SIMPLE SNACKS & SET TABLE FOR SNACK.	
B. HITS TO INDICATE REFUSALS.	• KEEP WORK SPACE FREE OF EXTRANEOUS MATERIALS.		

STUDENT: LARRY

INTERVENTION NEEDS	INTERVENTION PLAN: LONG TERM		CONSEQUENCES
	ECOLOGICAL	CURRICULAR	
3) SOCIAL-COMMUNICATION SKILLS			
A. SOCIAL INTERACTIONS WITH PEERS: DOES NOT INDICATE OR RESPOND TO CONTACT WITH PEERS, EXCEPT OCCASIONALLY HITS PEERS TO INDICATE DESIRE TO BE ALONE.	• PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR PARALLEL PLAY WITH PEERS. PROVIDE ADULT SUPPORT. • INTEGRATE FOR MUSIC. BEGIN WITH 5-10 MIN. AT END OF CLASS.	IEP GOAL OF CO-OPERATING WITH PEER IN LEISURE ACTIVITY (TAPES, COMPUTER).	FOR HITTING: INTERRUPT. THROUGH PHYSICAL POSITIONING & BLOCKING IF NECESSARY. REDIRECT TO ACTIVITY. IT'S PREFERABLE NOT TO ALLOW HITTING TO TERMINATE THE ACTIVITY.
B. INDICATE PREFERENCES: GRABS THINGS HE WANTS WHICH ARE IN VIEW; TUGS ON ADULT'S ARM OR WHINES FOR WANTS NOT SEEN OR OUT-OF-REACH.	• TAKE ADVANTAGE OF REAL SITUATIONS WHERE HE'S TRYING TO COMMUNICATE. RESPOND TO HIS ATTEMPTS BUT GRADUALLY INCREASE EXPECTATIONS WITH RESPECT TO FORM AND FREQUENCY OF REINFORCEMENT.	OBJ. OF TAPPING SHOULDER FOR ATTENTION. OBJ. OF NODDING OR SHAKING HEAD FOR YES/NO. OBJ. OF USING MANUAL SIGNS FOR BATHROOM, DRINK, FOODS, TOYS.	SHAPE MORE SOPHISTICATED FORM AND RESPOND TO REQUEST, IF IT'S REASONABLE. IF IT'S NOT, ACKNOWLEDGE REQUEST, TELL HIM WHEN HE CAN HAVE WHAT HE WANTS, & REDIRECT TO TASK, GIVING CONCRETE GOALS.

STUDENT: LARRY

INTERVENTION NEEDS	INTERVENTION PLAN: LONG TERM		CONSEQUENCES
	ECOLOGICAL	CURRICULAR	
4) THROWS TOYS IN AIR, FLAPS HANDS, STARES AT OBJECTS AND HANDS. PURPOSE SEEMS TO BE PLAY.	AVOID UNSTRUCTURED DOWN TIME: SCHEDULE FREE TIME WHEN CHOICE OF ACTIVITIES OFFERED. MODEL APPROPRIATE USE OF LEISURE MATERIALS. (PLAY TIME SHOULD BE FUN, BUT REMEMBER THAT HE NEEDS TO LEARN HOW TO PLAY.)	OBJ. OF CHOOSING (VIA SIGN/PICTURE/ WORD) BETWEEN 2 INDEPENDENT LEISURE ACTIVITIES AND USING MATERIALS APPROPRIATELY FOR 5/10 MINUTES.	INTERRUPT, IGNORE VERBALLY, AND REDIRECT TO THE ACTIVITY.